University of Hertfordshire School of Computer Science BSc Computer Science (Network Protocols and Architectures)

Module: Machine Learning and Neural Computing

Assignment 1

Data Classification Report

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Introduction:

Machine learning is a field of computer science that includes artificial intelligence, statistics, and computer science. Machine learning is concerned with teaching algorithms to recognise patterns and make predictions based on data. Machine learning is particularly useful since it allows us to automate decision-making processes using computers.

Machine learning applications may be found in a variety of places. Nowadays Machine learning is used by big companies like Netflix and Amazon to generate new product suggestions, by banks to detect fraudulent credit card transactions, and healthcare businesses are starting to utilise it to monitor, analyse, and diagnose patients.

In this report we have been given a dataset that has been extracted from the yeast dataset ([1] and [2]). Archive of the original dataset can be found at https://archivebeta.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/yeast. This is a dataset including 8 features, used for predicting the cellular localization sites of proteins. The extracted yeast dataset includes 3 classes only. The class is the localization site. Classes 1, 2 and 3 denote CYT (cytosolic or cytoskeletal), NUC (nuclear), MIT (mitochondrial), respectively.

We start off with two data files, one includes the training set, named yeast train.csv, and the other one, yeast test.csv, includes the test data. The last column of each file is the class label indicating the cellular localization sites of proteins.

The training set we are using consists of 800 instances, 288 labelled as 1, 304 labelled as 2 and 208 labelled as 3. For this model, we treated this set as a balanced dataset. The test set contains 335 instances and is of satisfactory quality and requires no pre-processing / data cleansing other than normalisation.

To classify the data, we will be using Support Vector Machines (SVMs). The type of SVM we used was the C-SVC (Cost-Support Vector Classifier) and the kernel function we used was the Gaussian radial basis function (RBF).

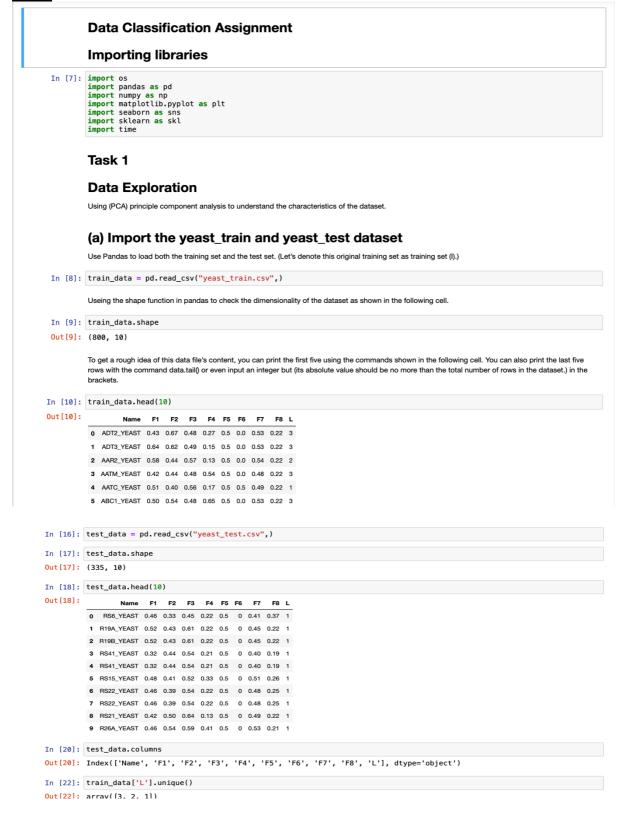
The model was written in python 3 using Jupiter notebook and we used functions from the following packages: NumPy, Pandas, Matplotlib, Seaborn and Sklearn.

We then summarised our findings and write conclusions on which model gives a better classification result, if that was what we expected and why.

Data Exploration:

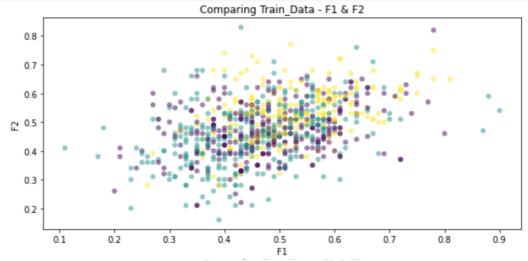
We started off by importing the libraries needed and loading the datasets and exploring their dimensionality, features and their names, labels etc to get a better understanding of the dataset, as can be seen in fig 1.

Fig 1:



In fig 2 we used Principle Component Analysis (PCA) to understand the characteristics of the dataset we started by plotting two subplots in one figure; one was a scatter plot of two features ('F1' and 'F2') of the training set against each other and the other was a scatter plot of the same two features of the test set against each other, normalised the training and test set using StandardScaler and then performed a (PCA) on the scaled training data and plotted the scree plot to report variances captured by each principle component.

Fig 2: Comparing F1 and F2 against each other.



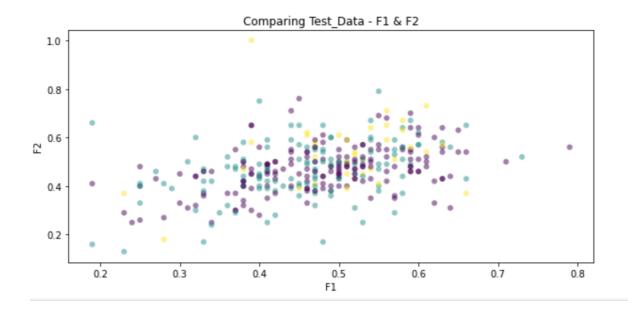


Fig 3: Normalisation using StandardScaler.

(c) Normalisation

Normalise the training set and the test set using StandardScaler() (Hint: the parameters should come from the training set only)

```
: from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
  scaled_train_data = train_data.iloc[:, 1:9]
scaled_test_data = test_data.iloc[:, 1:9]
  #Normalise the train and test data using standard scaler.
scaler = StandardScaler().fit(scaled_train_data)
  normalised_train_data = scaler.fit_transform(scaled_train_data)
normalised_test_data = scaler.fit_transform(scaled_test_data)
   print('='*100)
   print('The normalised_train_data.shape is:')
   print(normalised_train_data.shape)
  print('='*100)
print('The normalised_test_data.shape is:')
   print(normalised_test_data.shape)
   print('='*100)
  #Print the mean value of each feature after removing the mean
print(normalised_train_data.mean(axis=0))
   print('='*100)
   #Print the standard deviation value of each feature after removing the mean
   print(normalised_train_data.std(axis=0))
  print('='*100)
   The normalised_train_data.shape is:
   (800.8)
   The normalised_test_data.shape is:
   [-6.92779167e-16 2.53130850e-16 -1.06581410e-16 -1.86517468e-16 -3.75255382e-16 -4.44089210e-18 6.48370246e-16 -5.99520433e-16]
   [1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1.]
```

We followed by Performing a PCA analysis on the scaled training set and plotted the scree plot to report variances captured by each principal component.

Fig 4:

(d) (PCA) Analysis

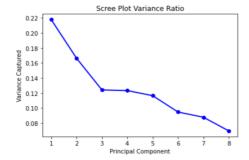
Perform a PCA analysis on the scaled training set and plot the scree plot to report variances captured by each principal component

Fig 4 Output:

0.6



```
fig3 = plt.figure()
plt.plot(np.arange(pca.n_components_) + 1, pca.explained_variance_ratio_, 'o-', linewidth=2, color='Blue')
plt.xlabel('Scree Plot Variance Ratio')
plt.xlabel('Principal Component')
plt.ylabel('Variance Captured')
plt.show()
```



Index of Principal Components

Below in fig 5 we plotted two subplots in one figure; one for projecting the training set in the projection space constructed using the first principal component (PC1) and the second principal component (PC2); the other one for projecting the training set in the projection space constructed using the second principal component (PC2) and the third principal component (PC3).

Fig 5: Plotting Subplots using (PCA) 1 AND (PCA) 2

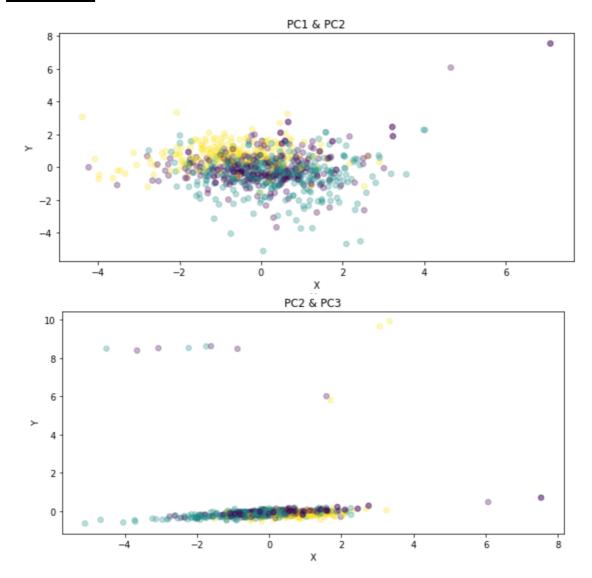
```
#Plotting 2 subplots in one figure
fig4, ax = plt.subplots(2, figsize=(10, 10))

pca_dataframe = pd.DataFrame(data=pca_data[:,:3],columns=['PC1', 'PC2', 'PC3'])
pca_dataframe = pd.concat([pca_dataframe, train_data["L"]], axis = 1)
pc1_pc2 = pca_dataframe.drop('PC3', axis=1)
pc2_pc3 = pca_dataframe.drop('PC1', axis=1)

#Training data PC1 & PC2
ax[0].set_title("PC1 & PC2")
ax[0].scatter(pc1_pc2["PC1"], pc1_pc2["PC2"], c=pc1_pc2["L"], alpha=0.3)
ax[0].set_xlabel("X")
ax[0].set_ylabel("Y")

#Training data PC2 & PC3
ax[1].scatter(pc2_pc3["PC2"], pc2_pc3["PC3"], c=pc2_pc3["L"],alpha=0.3)
ax[1].set_xlabel("Y")
ax[1].set_ylabel("Y")
ax[1].set_title("PC2 & PC3")
```

Fig 5 output:



Once the variance captured was reported and analysed we divided/split the training dataset into a smaller dataset (ii) a validation set, we used between 20% - 30% of the total datapoints using the train_test_split function and reported the number of points in each set, followed by normalisation again with the parameters only coming from the training set as seen in fig 5.

You should always test a classifier on unknown data to determine how well it performs. As a result, divide your data into two pieces before developing a model a training set and a test set.

During the development stage, you utilise the training set to train and assess the model. The trained model is then used to generate predictions on the unknown test set. This method allows you to assess the model's robustness and performance.

Thankfully, sklearn has a method called train test split() that separates your data into these groups. To split the data, first import the function and then use it:

Fig 6:

(b) Normalise both the training set (II) and the validation set

(Hint: the parameters should come from the training set (II) only)

```
8]: from sklearn import preprocessing
    train_data_values = train_data_ii.iloc[:, 1:9]
    validation_values = validation_set.iloc[:, 1:9]
    validation_labels = validation_set["L"]
    training_labels = train_data_ii['L']
    #Fit gives mean values and std value bcoz we will use that
    #Values for both the sets
    scaler = preprocessing.StandardScaler().fit(train_data_values)
    """Scale the smaller training set"""
    normalised_train_data_ii = scaler.transform(train_data_values) #First split the smaller training set
    """Scale the validation set"""
    normalised_validation_set = scaler.transform(validation_values)
    print('='*100)
    print( = *100)
print('The normalised_train_data_ii.shape is:')
print(normalised_train_data_ii.shape)
    print('='*100)
print('The normalised_validation_set.shape is:')
print(normalised_validation_set.shape)
    print(normalised_train_data_ii.mean(axis=0)) #Print the mean value of each feature after removing the mean
    print(normalised_train_data_ii.std(axis=0)) #Print the standard deviation value of each feature after removing the m
    print('='*100)
    The normalised_train_data_ii.shape is:
    The normalised_validation_set.shape is:
    [-1.56911521e-16 -2.25005200e-16 3.98940140e-16 1.53950926e-16 1.50842302e-15 -8.88178420e-18 4.44089210e-16 -7.78636415e-16]
    [1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1.]
```

We then went on to train an SVM model for each of the 4 different given combinations of cost and gamma, tested it on the normalised validation set and reported the accuracy rate of all combinations.

Followed by selecting the best combination and training another SVM classification model with those selected parameter values, classified the normalised test set this time and reported the accuracy rate and the confusion matrix, seen in fig 7.

Fig 7:

Non Linear Classifications

(a) Basic task

i. Choosing the most suitable parameters When using the C-SVC SVM with the Gaussian radial basis kernel there are two tunable parameters, C (cost) and γ (gamma). You have been given the following combinations: [C=10, γ =0.1], [C=50, γ =0.1], [C=100, γ =0.1], and [C=10, γ =0.01]. You should train an SVM model for each combination from the given 4 combinations and then test it on the normalised validation set. The accuracy rate for each combination on the validation set should be reported. Finally, you need to select the best combination of parameters and report your result.

```
: normalised_validation_set.shape
: (200, 8)

: from sklearn.svm import SVC
    from sklearn.metrics import classification_report, accuracy_score, ConfusionMatrixDisplay
    cost_gamma_combinations = [[10, 0.1],[50, 0.1],[100, 0.1],[10, 0.01]]

for cost, gamma_val in cost_gamma_combinations:
    s = SVC(kernel='rbf', class_weight='balanced', C=cost, gamma=gamma_val,)
    s.fit(normalised_train_data_ii, training_labels)

    train_pred = s.predict(normalised_validation_set)
    print('Accuracy Rate:', accuracy_score(validation_labels, train_pred))

#print(classification_report(validation_labels, train_pred))

Accuracy Rate: 0.59
    Accuracy Rate: 0.55
    Accuracy Rate: 0.555
```

```
from sklearn.metrics import plot_confusion_matrix

s2 = SVC(kernel='rbf', class_weight='balanced', C=10, gamma=0.01)
s2.fit(normalised_train_data_i, train_labels )

test_labels = test_data['L']

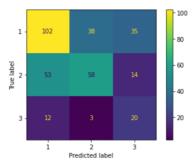
test_pred = s2.predict(normalised_test_data_i,)

print('Accuracy Rate:', accuracy_score(test_labels, test_pred))
plot_confusion_matrix(s2,normalised_test_data_i,test_labels)
plt.show()
print('Classification Report:\n')

print(classification_report(test_labels, test_pred))
```

Accuracy Rate: 0.5373134328358209

Accuracy Rate: 0.6



Classification Report:

	precision	recall	f1-score	support
1 2 3	0.61 0.59 0.29	0.58 0.46 0.57	0.60 0.52 0.38	175 125 35
accuracy macro avg weighted avg	0.50 0.57	0.54 0.54	0.54 0.50 0.55	335 335 335

Lastly and in fig 8, we reduced features for the normalised training set and then normalised test set using the first 5 principal components.

Did the classification using the Gaussian radial basis kernel SVM with the best parameter values found from the four different combinations of cost and gamma discussed earlier, trained, and tested the SVM model on the reduced features and reported the classification results on the test set.

Fig 8: Non-linear classification with features reduced using PCA

```
reduced_feature_train_data = normalised_train_data[:, :5]
reduced_feature_test_data = normalised_test_data[:, :5]
```

ii.Do the classification using the Gaussian radial basis kernel SVM with parameter values selected in Task 3 (a) (2 marks). • Normalise the training set and the test set after the feature reduction. • Train an SVM model on the training set with reduced features. • Test the model on the corresponding test set, that is the one with reduced features and report the classification result on the test set.

```
from sklearn.metrics import classification_report
training_labels2 = train_data['L']
test_labels = test_data['L']
scaler 3 = StandardScaler().fit(reduced feature train data)
normalised_train_set_iii = scaler_3.transform(reduced_feature_train_data)
normalised_test_set_iii = scaler_3.transform(reduced_feature_test_data)
s3 = SVC(C=10, gamma=0.01)
s3.fit(normalised_train_set_iii, training_labels2)
y_pred = s3.predict(normalised_test_set_iii)
print(classification_report(test_labels, y_pred))
                precision recall f1-score support
                     0.61 0.59
0.50 0.41
0.32 0.57
            1
                                            0.60
                                             0.45
                                                         125
                                            0.41
                                                           35
                                            0.52
                                                         335
    accuracy
macro avg 0.47 0.52
weighted avg 0.53 0.52
                                             0.49
                                                          335
```

Conclusion:

After evaluating both models I believe the model trained on the original features produced a better accuracy result because I think there are some meaningful differences in the that model data compared to the model trained on the reduced data as I think this is because we have more to test on in that model.

I kind of expected this because of the biased split between the training, testing and validation datasets.

To improve our accuracy for the reduced set, I think we should try and perform an arbitrary data split again or maybe use stratified random sampling, and provide more diverse data, or maybe even just use more columns instead of just using five for the reduced dataset and then check for the difference in the accuracy score again.

References:

- [1] Nakai, K., and Kanehisa, M. Expert sytem for predicting protein localization sites in gram-negative bacteria. PROTEINS: Structure, Function, and Genetics 11 (1991), 95–110.
- [2] Nakai, K., and Kanehisa, M. A knowledge base for predicting protein localization sites in eukaryotic cells. Genomics 14 (1992), 897–911.
- [3] Morales, M., 2017. *How To Build a Machine Learning Classifier in Python with Scikit-learn* | *DigitalOcean*. [online] Digitalocean.com. Available at: https://www.digitalocean.com/community/tutorials/how-to-build-a-machine-learning-classifier-in-python-with-scikit-learn.
- [4] www.javatpoint.com. 2022. *Support Vector Machine (SVM) Algorithm Javatpoint*. [online] Available at: https://www.javatpoint.com/machine-learning-support-vector-machine-algorithm.